

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH



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Introduction to Language 2

A Simplified Course-Book

This Simplified Course-Book, Introduction to Language 2 (221ج /E221), focuses on teaching elementary concepts, terms and knowledge about the introduction to the scientific study of language, concentrating on elementary Morphology and Syntax. to the 2nd Year-English-B.Ed. students, of the year 2017-2018, 2nd semester 2017-2018, in the English Department, Zabid-College of Education, Hodeidah University, Yemen.

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Section 1: Welcome to Introduction to Language 2, a Simplified Course-Book

The Introduction to Language 2, a Simplified Course-Book focuses on teaching elementary concepts, terms, and knowledge about the introduction to the scientific study of language. It concentrates on teaching English Morphology and Syntax to the 2nd -Year-English-B.Ed. students of the year 2017-2018 in their 2nd semester 2017-2018, in the Department of English, Zabid-College of Education, Hodeidah University. The author and lecturer of this simplified course-book is Dr. Abdullah M. M. Ali Shaghi, an Assistant Professor of Linguistics, Ph.D. in Linguistics, from Aligarh Muslim University (A.M.U.), U.P., India, 2010; M.A. in Linguistics from JNU, New Delhi, India in 2006, and B.Ed. in English from Hodeida University (HU) in 1996.

Whereas the first simplified course-book **Introduction to Language I (219 /E219)** covered areas like elementary phonetics and phonology, this Simplified Course-Book **Introduction to Language 2 (221ع /E221)**, covers elementary Morphology and Syntax. Thus, it considers as preparing the students for more advanced courses on Morphology and Syntax in the third year of their study. In other words, the simplified course-book **Introduction to Language 2**, like the previous simplified course-book **Introduction to Language I**, also aims at developing the Yemeni students' awareness of how the English Language as a foreign language in Yemen (especially in Tihamah of Yemen, Zabid city, Zabid College of Education, Hodeidah University) is structured and operates. The Yemeni students will study some important terms and facts about language in general and especially English and Arabic. In the previous work you have studied the properties of the human language that make it unique and uniquely powerful in studying the human mind, the characteristics of human language that make different from the animal communication, as well as the introductory aspects of the sounds of English as

well as Arabic and their patterns (phonetics and phonology). In this course, you are going to study an introduction to language including the scientific study of language (Linguistics), concentrating on Elementary Morphology and Syntax of English.

The author organizes this **simplified course-book** in fifteen sections: Section 1 introduces, “Welcome to the Introduction to Language 2, a Simplified Course-Book”. Section 2 asks, “Why Do People Study Language?” Section 3 represents Linguistic knowledge. Section four deals with Language Universals and On the Origins of Language. Section 5 discusses the topic of “Language.” Section six deals with Language Variation and Language Change. Section seven deals with Language and Brain. Section eight deals with Language in Education. Section nine deals with Linguistics = Thinking about Language. Section 10 deals with Language and Linguistics. Section 11 introduces Elementary Morphology and Syntax. Section 12 shows Some Differences in English-Arabic Morphology and Syntax. Section 13 discusses Functions of Language. Section 14 deals with Child Language Acquisition (CLA): Developmental Process. In the final pages, the author provide Bibliography and Appendix of Previous Exam Questions Papers.

Most important themes of this simplified course-book include the language universals, the language origins, the language and thought, the language and linguistics, the connections between linguistics and other disciplines, the relationship between language and brain, the elementary Morphology and Syntax (English and Arabic), the language functions, and the role of nature and develop in child language acquisition.

By taking this simplified course-book, students should learn:

- To see beyond widely held myths (traditions/backgrounds) about language;

- To gain specific knowledge of the subfields in linguistics and prepare for other simplified course-books;
- To understand traditional grammatical terminology, as well as its motivation and limits; and
- To see connections between linguistics and other disciplines.

Textbook

Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman and Nina Hyams, *An Introduction to Language* (9th edition 2011).

Reading

Yule, George (2006). *The Study of Language: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Ch. 1-2

Kortmann, Bernd (2005). *English Linguistics: Essentials*. Berlin: Cornelsen Verlag. Ch. 1.

Finegan, Edward (2004). *Language: Its Structure and Use*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers. Ch. 1.

Advanced Reading

Bauer, Laurie & Trudgill, Peter (Eds.). (1998). *Language Myths*. London: Penguin. 4 5

Herrmann, Christophe & Fiebach, Christian (2004). *Gehirn & Sprache*. Frankfurt a. M.: Fischer.

Pinker, Steven (1994). *The Language Instinct*. London: Penguin.

Bauer, Laurie. (2007). *The Linguistics Student's Handbook*. ISBN 978 0 7486 2759 2. EDINBURGH UNIVERSITY PRESS.

<<https://ia902300.us.archive.org/4/items/TheLinguisticsStudentHandbook/The%20linguistics%20student%20handbook.pdf>>10/11/2017

Course Requirements

Mid-term Exam:	%45
Final Exam:	%105

Examinations

There will be TWO examinations. Each examination will focus primarily on the material, which the lecturer has covered since the previous examination. There will be a cumulative final examination given during the final examination period.

Participation and Attendance

Participation includes regular attendance, preparation of class materials and readings, and active involvement. Come to class prepared! You have to do a complete introductory reading before you come to class. Think about what you are learning, and be ready to participate when you come to class. Ask questions! Please ask if you do not understand or even if you do. If you are having any trouble or if you just want to discuss specific issues make an office appointment or see me after class. Attend class! Attendance is important to understanding the material since we will try to go beyond the textbook material in our class discussions. If you are going to miss class for a good reason, it is a good idea to let

me know ahead of time if possible. You are responsible for contacting me and making up missed material if you are absent.

Attendance Policy

The lecturer strongly advises for regular attendances. Only officially, recognized absences the lecturer will excuse. He has to record excused absences within one week.

Acknowledgments

The author of this simplified course-book would like to thank all of those (colleagues and students) who have invest time and effort into this project. This simplified course-book would not have been possible without them.

The production of this simplified course-book was with the following open source program: (archive.org). Students and interested readers can find the author's own uploads in the link: (https://archive.org/details/@dr_abdullah_shaghi).

Section 2: The Reason Why People Study Language

What it has been attested in literature by linguists is that people find the subject of language interesting and worth studying for many different reasons; for instance, language can be used as a way of finding out more about the following:

1. **Psycholinguistics:** Psycholinguistics refers to how our brains work, investigating how children learn language, or how damage to our brains results in certain kind of language disorders;
2. **Applied Linguistics:** Applied Linguistics refers to how to learn and to teach different languages;
3. **Philosophy:** Philosophy is the relationship between meaning, language and perception;
4. **Anthropology:** Anthropology is the role of language in different cultures;
5. **Stylistics:** Stylistics refers to the styles of language used in literature;
6. **Sociolinguistics:** Sociolinguistics refers to the different varieties of language people use, and why there are linguistic differences between different groups; and
7. **Artificial Intelligence:** Artificial Intelligence refers to how to make computers more sophisticated.

Section 3: Linguistic knowledge

Linguistic knowledge entails the ability to produce certain sounds that have certain meanings and to understand the sounds made by others. There are several points to take into consideration about *Linguistic knowledge* that are as follows:

- (1) **Linguistic knowledge** is subconscious;

- (2) **Linguistic knowledge** involves: (a) sounds, (b) words, and (c) sentences.
- (3) **The Relationship between form and meaning** is arbitrary (not iconic).
- (4) **Sound Symbolism (onomatopoeic)**: The pronunciation shows the meaning (e.g., splash, bang, hiss, etc.).
- (5) **Competence vs. Performance**: Competence vs. Performance refers to what we know vs. the actual use of language.
- (6) **Descriptive vs. Prescriptive**: Descriptive vs. Prescriptive refers to how language is vs. how language should be.
- (7) **Language Universals**: Language Universals refers to the components that one sees in all languages.

Section 4: Language Universals and On the Origins of Language

4.1.: Language Universals

According to Michael Krauss (Stephens: 1993), there are 6,000 dialects, give or take 10 percent, that are still spoken in today's world. Although one cannot be sure that all of these languages exemplify each one of the language universal, in general, linguists agree that languages contain many of the same organizing principles. The following list offers an idea of some **universal facts** about human language (Diaz-Rico & Weed: 1995):

- (1) Where humans exist, language exists.
- (2) There are no 'primitive' languages. All languages are equally complex and capable of expressing an idea.

- (3) Every normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage, is capable of learning any language to which he or she is exposed.
- (4) The relationships between the sounds and meanings of spoken languages or gestures and meanings of sign languages are, for the most part, arbitrary.
- (5) All human languages use a finite set of sounds or gestures that are combined to form meaningful elements of words than then combine to form an infinite set of possible sentences.
- (6) Every spoken language uses discrete sound segments and has vowels and consonants.
- (7) Speakers of any language are capable of producing and comprehending an infinite set of sentences.
- (8) All grammars contain rules for the formation of words and sentences.
- (9) Every language has a way of referring to past time; the ability to negate; the ability to form questions; issue commands; and so on.
- (10) Semantic universals, such as 'male' or 'female,' are found in every language of the world.
- (11) All languages change through time.

4.2.: On the Origins of language

There is long tradition of speculating about the origin of language. Most of this was and is unscientific, as it does not apply stringent principles of historical continuity and interrelations.

Modern man has existed for about 200,000 years and after 50,000 BC language had developed all the structural properties which are characteristic of it today. Language is an evolutionary phenomenon, which is continually adapted to the communicative needs of its speakers.

The organs of speech are biologically secondary but their rise has led to a specialization such as the great flexibility of the tongue or the relatively deep larynx which distinguishes humans from higher primates [= an animal order including lemurs and tarsiers and monkeys and apes and human beings].

(Source: Raymond Hickey the Neat Summary of Linguistics p. 3)

Section 5: Language

Because we have a word *language*, we assume that there must be some corresponding entity for the word to denote. However, the linguist Saussure points out to us that ‘language is not an entity’. Defining something like ‘The English Language’ turns out to be a difficult task. Part of the problem is that the language has so many different aspects. We can view it as a social fact, as a psychological state, as a set of structures, or as a collection of outputs.

A language is a social fact, a kind of social contract. It exists not in an individual, but in a community.

A language can also be viewed as a mental reality. It exists in the heads of people who speak it, and we assume its existence because of people’s ability to learn languages in general and their practice in dealing with at least one particular language. ‘A grammar is a mental entity, represented in the mind/brain of an individual and characterizing that individual’s linguistic capacity. One possible definition of a language is precisely that it is the grammatical system, which allows

speakers to produce appropriate utterances. ‘Grammar’ has as many meanings as ‘language’.

In this sense, we might see a language as a set of choices, a set of contrasts. We can say *Kim kissed the crocodile* or *The crocodile kissed Kim*, but we cannot choose to say, as a meaningful sentence of English, *Kissed crocodile Kim the*. There is a system to what orders the words have to come in if they are to make sense. Therefore, a language can be viewed as a system of systems. Another alternative way of considering language is to ignore the way in which speakers go about constructing utterances, and consider instead their output, an actual set of utterances or (in a more idealized form) a set of sentences.

The question of whether we should be dealing with utterances (things produced, whether in speech or in writing, by speakers) or sentences raises another potential distinction. Chomsky (1986) introduces the notion of a distinction between E-language and I-language.

So the utterances are External-language (E-language), while the sentences may well belong to Internal-language (I-language), that hypothesized rather less error-prone system which we have in our heads. However, the ‘intellectual apparatus’ which allows children to construct a language like English for themselves is also, it is suggested, language in a rather different sense. The language capacity, the feature that distinguishes humans from other animals, is sometimes also simply called ‘language’.

There are so many complexities here that we might argue that it would be better for linguists to give up attempting even to describe particular languages, let alone ‘language’ in the abstract. What are they to describe? Are they to describe the social structure, which is complete only in the collectivity, or the mental structure which speakers of that language must be assumed to carry in their heads, or the set of systems, which are presumed to allow speakers to create new

utterances for themselves, or the actually produced utterances? All of these have been tried.

Many linguists prefer to use the term *idiolect* for the language of an individual. So you do not speak English, you speak your idiolect. That seems simple enough until we ask what ‘English’ consists of. Presumably it consists of the sum of all the idiolects of people who we agree are speaking English. However, some of these people have conflicting ideas about what is part of their language. To take a simple example, there are millions of people speaking what we would call ‘English’, for whom the past tense of the verb *dive* is *dove*. For these speakers *dived* sounds like baby-talk, as *writed* would be instead of *wrote*. There are also millions of speakers for whom *dived* is the only possible past tense of *dive*, and *dove* sounds like the kind of joke you make when you say that the past tense of *think* must be *thank* or *thunk*. The example is trivial, but it means that we must allow for many different answers to what is English, even mutually incompatible ones. The language ‘English’ is not well defined (and the same will be true for any other language, which is given a name in this way).

Neither is language in the sense ‘language faculty’ well defined. A lot of work has gone into trying to understand Universal Grammar (or UG as it is usually termed) within Chomskyan approaches to linguistics, and we do not yet understand what it must look like or how it must function. There is even dispute as to whether it is a specifically linguistic set of functions, or whether it is a general set of cognitive abilities, which together allow human beings to be language users.

If neither a language nor language (the language faculty) is easily definable, we have to ask what it is that linguists deal with. Linguists have to define language for their own purposes. They do not have an external definition of language or of a particular language, which is clearly sufficient for their needs. This is not necessarily a bad thing, but it does mean that care is required.

(Source: All above with slight modifications are from Bauer, Laurie. (2007, pp.4-6). *The Linguistics Student's Handbook*. ISBN 978 0 7486 2759 2. EDINBURGH UNIVERSITY PRESS.

<<https://ia902300.us.archive.org/4/items/TheLinguisticsStudentHandbook/The%20linguistics%20student%20handbook.pdf>>10/11/2017)

Section 6: Language Variation and Language Change

Language Variation

Any given language varies from region to region, from social class to social class, from situation to situation and from person to person. There is essentially an unlimited number of factors, which create this situation, location of birth, residence, education, social milieu, age.

One example of variation is “dialect” variation, or regional variation .However the notion of “dialect” is troubling. Is a dialect a “substandard” phenomenon? A case in point: French and its “patois” Until the mid-19th century, most people in France spoke some variety of “patois” (=lingo) or other regional/national languages. The patois can be broken down into three main categories: Langue d’oïl (northern dialects), Langue d’oc (southern dialects), and Franco-Provençal (intermediate dialects)

The French taught in schools and universities, “Standard French”, is really the patois called “francien”, which is the regional variation spoken around Paris. In fact, the francien patois was an international language before it was a national

language! All the French patois grew out of, not francien, but from Latin. Therefore, in a sense, in the “substandard” theory, the entire French language, and all its patois, are corruptions of Latin.

Another case in point, Spanish and its nearby neighbors, national languages as “dialects” In Spain, several Latin based languages are present: castellano, gallego, catalan (valenciano), and asturiano. These languages have “national” identities attached to them beyond and often predating the existence of Spain. Some also consider Portuguese a dialect of Spanish.

The following variations related to the discussion of language variation are given below:

Variation by Mutual Intelligibility: As long as two speakers of a given language can understand each other, we say that mutual intelligibility exists. When mutual intelligibility does not exist, we might have a case for two separate languages.

Variation by Social Class: People living side by side can have different variations based on their social milieu. For instance, Blue collar vs. White Collar in the U, Working Class vs. Upper Middle Class in the UK, and Classe Ouvrière vs. Bourgeois in France.

Variation by Individual: The idiolect is result of place of birth, external cultural influences, social class, social milieu, education, age, life experience, and psychology.

Variation by Circumstance: Formal vs. Informal depends on social setting and ranges from swearing and using slang to using very careful wording in exceptional circumstances (PC language for example).

Language Change

Language change is variation over time in a language's phonological, morphological, semantic, syntactic, and other features. It is studied by historical linguistics and evolutionary linguistics. Some commentators use the label corruption to suggest that language change constitutes a degradation in the quality of a language, especially when the change originates from human error or prescriptively discouraged usage.

Causes of Language Change

Economy as a Cause of Language Change refers to speakers who tend to make their utterances as efficient and effective as possible to reach communicative goals. The principle of least effort tends to result in phonetic reduction of speech forms. See vowel reduction, cluster reduction, lenition, and elision. After some time a change may become widely accepted (it becomes a regular sound change) and may end up treated as a standard. For instance: going to ['gou.ɪŋ.tu] → gonna ['gɒnə] or ['gʌnə], with examples of both vowel reduction [ʊ] → [ə] and elision [nt] → [n], [oʊ.I] → [ʌ].

Analogy as a Cause of Language Change refers to reducing word forms by equating different forms of the word to the root.

Language Contact as a Cause of Language Change refers to borrowing of words and constructions from other languages.

Geographic Separation as a Cause of Language Change refers to when people move away from each other; their language will diverge, at least for the vocabulary, due to different experiences.

Cultural Environment as a Cause of Language Change refers to groups of speakers will reflect new places, situations, and objects in their language, whether they encounter different people there or not.

Migration/Movement as a Cause of Language Change refers to speakers who will change and create languages, such as pidgins and creoles.

Imperfect Learning as a Cause of Language Change refers to, According to one view, children who regularly learn the adult forms imperfectly, and the changed forms then turn into a new standard. Alternatively, imperfect learning occurs regularly in one part of society, such as an immigrant group, where the minority language forms a substratum, and the changed forms can ultimately influence majority usage.

Social Prestige as a Cause of Language Change refers to language that may not only change towards a prestigious accent, but also away from one with negative prestige, as in the case of rhoticity of Received Pronunciation. Such movements can go back and forward.

Types of Language Change

All languages change continually, and do so in many and varied ways. Marcel Cohen details various types of language change under the overall headings of the external evolution and internal evolution of languages.

Lexical Changes

The study of lexical changes forms the diachronic portion of the science of onomasiology. The ongoing influx of new words into the English language (for example) helps make it a rich field for investigation into language change, despite the difficulty of defining precisely and accurately the vocabulary available to speakers of English. Throughout its history, English has not only borrowed words from other languages but has re-combined and recycled them to create new meanings, whilst losing some old words. Dictionary-writers try to keep track of the changes in languages by recording (and, ideally, dating) the appearance in a language of new words, or of new usages for existing words. Similarly, they may tag some words eventually as "archaic" or "obsolete".

Sound Changes

The concept of sound changes covers both phonetic and phonological developments. The sociolinguist William Labov recorded the change in pronunciation in a relatively short period in the American resort of Martha's Vineyard. He showed how this resulted from social tensions and processes. The mapping and recording of small-scale phonological changes poses difficulties, especially as the practical technology of sound recording dates only from the 19th

century. Written texts provide the main (indirect) evidence of how language sounds have changed over the centuries. However, note Ferdinand de Saussure's work on postulating the existence and disappearance of laryngeals in Proto-Indo-European as an example of other methods of detecting/reconstructing sound-changes within historical linguistics.

Spelling Changes

Differences in spelling often catch the eye of a reader of a text from a previous century. The pre-print era had fewer literate people: languages lacked fixed systems of orthography, and the handwritten manuscripts that survive often show words spelled according to regional pronunciation and to personal preference.

Syntactic Changes

Syntactic change are the evolution of the syntactic structures of natural languages. Over time, syntactic change is the greatest modifier of a particular language. Massive changes – attributable either to creolization or to relexification – may occur both in syntax and in vocabulary. Syntactic change can also be purely language-internal, whether independent within the syntactic component or the eventual result of phonological or morphological change.

Semantic Changes

Semantic changes are shifts in the meanings of existing words. Basic types of semantic change include: **Pejoration**, in which a term's connotations become more negative; **Amelioration**, in which a term's connotations become more positive;

Broadening, in which a term acquires additional potential uses; and **Narrowing**, in which a term's potential uses are restricted. After a word enters a language, its meaning can change as through a shift in the valence of its connotations. As an example, when "villain" entered English it meant 'peasant' or 'farmhand', but acquired the connotation 'low-born' or 'scoundrel', and today only the negative use survives. Thus, 'villain' has undergone **pejoration**. Conversely, the word "wicked" is undergoing **amelioration** in colloquial contexts, shifting from its original sense of 'evil', to the much more positive one as of 2009 of 'brilliant'.

Words' meanings may also change in terms of the breadth (= the extent of something from side to side) of their semantic domain. **Narrowing** a word limits its alternative meanings, whereas **broadening** associates new meanings with it. For example, the word "dog" has been broadened from its Old English root 'dogge', the name of a particular breed, to become the general term for all canines.

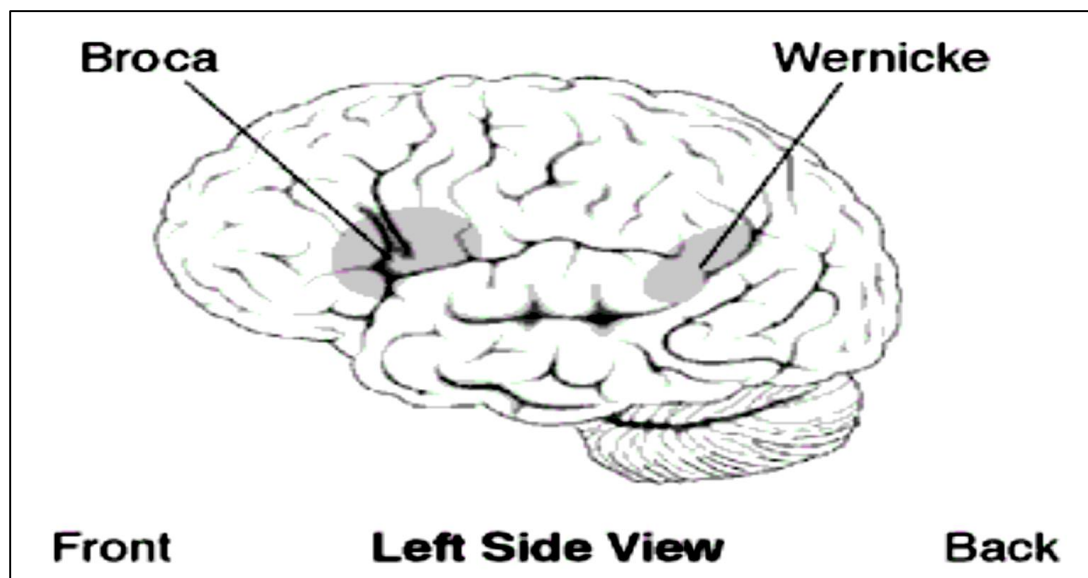
(Source From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_change> 14/01/2018

Section 7: Language and Brain

Language is a cognitive skill and one therefore whose roots positioned in the evolution of the brain. We do not know exactly when our ancestors began to speak (estimates vary from 30,000 – 100,000 years ago), or even what triggered them to do so, but once they started, there was no stopping them. From such humble beginnings, the 5,000 – 6,000 languages we assume to exist today have evolved. Research mainly on **language aphasia** has been able to show that there are two major areas of the brain specialized in language processing, production and

comprehension: **Broca** and **Wernicke's areas** situated in the left hemisphere and named after the two physicians who first discovered them in the 19th century.



Section 8: Language in Education

Language is central to education. This is according to the following points: (1) Language is the **means** by which we communicate the educational content. (2) Language is an **object** of study. (3) Language is an object of **beliefs** that are important in education. (4) Language is a key element of students' **identities**. (5) Language poses potential **problems** in education, largely because of the beliefs we have about it. (6) And language is a valuable **resource** for those who know how to make use of it.

Language is a *means of education* in that it is the primary medium of communication between students and teachers and between students and textbooks.

Language is an *object of education* because it is the material out of which, we weave texts, and because language itself is the object of study in writing and speaking courses. We focus on language as we learn to edit our essays and speeches. We develop our vocabularies and learn the meanings, uses, and conventional spellings of words. We learn to control the genres required for various disciplines and the specific characteristics expected in those genres, for example, personal essays, academic papers of various sorts, business letters, reports, and magazine articles.

Language is also an object of study as far as we develop our skills in using it to communicate, to acquire knowledge from lectures and books, to integrate new information with old, to replace false beliefs with new true ones, and to increase or decrease our estimates of the likelihood that some belief we hold is true.

It is important to note here that students who are learning English as a second or foreign language labor under a double burden, because English is simultaneously both the means and an object of their education.

(**Source:** Introduction to the Linguistic Study of Language, by Delahunty and Garvey, p. 7)

Section 9: Linguistics = Thinking about Language

Linguistics is the (scientific) study of (human) language (Crystal: 1992).

Linguistics is conducted along two axes: *Theoretical* vs. *Applied*: *Theoretical* (or *General*) *Linguistics* is concerned with frameworks for describing individual languages and theories about universal aspects of language; *applied linguistics*

applies these theories to practical problems such as language teaching, speech synthesis, or speech therapy. A **linguist** is someone who engages in this study. The linguist is someone who studies linguistics rather than someone who speaks several languages.

History of Linguistics (schools)

Linguists bind up the history of linguistics is with various theories that they have proposed in the attempt at explaining the nature of the human language faculty. They grouped these theories into three broad categories that correspond roughly to historical epochs.

Theoretical orientation	Historical period
0) non-theoretical studies	before the 19th century
1) Historical linguistics	19th century
2) Structuralism	first half of 20th century
3) Generative grammar	second half of 20th century

There is a distinction between general and descriptive linguistics, the former being about concepts and the latter about investigating and describing languages.

Theoretical linguistics develops models of language competence while applied linguistics deals with the uses to which linguistics put in practical affairs such as language teaching.

Linguists divide all languages into levels that are the divisions made according to the status of elements — sounds (phonology), words (morphology), sentences (syntax). In addition, one has the level of meaning (semantics) and language use (pragmatics).

Areas of linguistics are concerned with the approach and scope of a linguistic study. This can for example concern social uses of language (sociolinguistics), the process of learning language (language acquisition), and historical processes (language change).

Various linguistic theories have been developed over the past two centuries. Three main schools can be recognized: Neogrammarianism (late 19th century), structuralism (first half of 20th century), generative grammar (second half of 20th century).

Development of Linguistics

The most important points to consider in the development of Linguistics are briefly as follows:

- (1) 1786 - William Jones demonstrated that Sanskrit had similarities with Greek, Celtic, Latin, Germanic and Persian \Rightarrow Comparative linguistics – Indo-European
- (2) 1822 - Grimm's law of sound changes
- (3) 1892 - Frege's triangle (real object, concept, symbol; reference and sense)
- (4) 1916 - Saussure's Cours de linguistique générale \Rightarrow Structuralism
- (5) 1933 – Bloomfield's (Introduction to the study of) Language \Rightarrow Immediate constituency analysis
- (6) 1957 – Chomsky's Syntactic Structures \Rightarrow Generative –transformational grammar

- (7) 1963 – Roman Jakobson’s *Essais de linguistique générale* ⇒ Language functions (see section of Language Functions below)
- (8) 1960’s – Austin and Searle’s Speech Act Theory ⇒ Pragmatics
- (9) 1976 – Halliday’s System and function in language ⇒ Systemic functional grammar

Sub-Disciplines of Linguistics

- (1) *Microlinguistics*: phonology, morphology, lexicography, semantics, syntax, text analysis.
- (2) *Macrolinguistics*: pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.
- (3) *Applied linguistics*: lexicography, translation studies, error analysis, computer linguistics.

Section 10: Language and Linguistics

The goal of *linguistics* is to provide valid analyses of ***language*** structure.

Linguistic theory is concerned with establishing a coherent set of independent principles to explain phenomena in language. There are no *primitive* languages.

Each language is adapted for the community which speaks it, be this industrialised or not.

Onomatopoeia is not a major principle in language although symbols (icons) may be present on a more abstract level. There is no such thing as correct language in any absolute sense. Language is neutral and should not be the object of value judgements. Lay people tend to confuse language and attitudes to those who use language.

Written language is secondary and derived from spoken language. Despite its status in western societies, written language is only of marginal interest to the linguist.

Linguistics is a science although the evidence for assumptions about the structure of language is never direct. Linguists are more concerned with designing valid and general models of linguistic structure rather with than searching for proof in any strictly empirical sense.

Language consists largely of rules that determine its use. There are, however, many exceptions. Native speakers can deal with a large amount of irregularity that is stored in the mental lexicon.

Knowledge of language refers to many abstract structures such as those of sentence types or systematic units such as phonemes or morphemes. Language would appear to be modularly in order, i.e. to consist of a set of subsystems labelled 'levels of language', such as phonology, morphology or syntax.

Most knowledge about language is unconscious and humans cannot access it directly. The task of the linguist is often to demonstrate the existence of this unconscious knowledge and to suggest methods of describing it.

(Source: Raymond Hickey the Neat Summary of Linguistics p. 3)

Section 11: Elementary Morphology and Syntax

The first course, *Introduction to Language 1, a simplified course-book*, covered areas like elementary phonetics and phonology, where you have studied the production of the sounds of language in the human vocal organs such as lungs, larynx, oral cavity, nasal cavity, and the sounds systematic organization of the sounds in particular languages like English and Arabic. This course, *Introduction to Language 2, a simplified course-book* is going to cover areas like elementary Morphology and Syntax (where you are going to study elementary Morphology and Syntax that have to do with how these sounds combine to form words (Morphology) and sentences (Syntax).)

Morphology

Morphology is the study of the structure of words, including the rules of word formation. It comes from a Greek word meaning ‘shape’ or ‘form’ and is used in linguistics to denote the study of words, both with regard to their internal structure and their combination or formation to form new or larger units.

Morphology can further be divided into **inflectional** (concerned with the endings put on words) and **derivational** (involves the formation of new words).

Affixation is the process of attaching an inflection or, more generally, a bound morpheme to a word. This can occur at the beginning or end and occasionally in the middle of a word form.

Linguists classify morphemes according to whether they are **bound** or **free** and furthermore lexical or grammatical.

Word formation processes can be either productive or non-productive. There are different types of word-formation such as coinage, compounding, (conversion), back formation, blending and clipping.

For any language, the distinction between native and foreign elements in the **lexicon** is important.

Root is a morpheme from a lexical class, typically V, N, A, which build a lexical word (by adding affixes) as in *sing* in *sing-er*.

Stem is a morphological constituent larger than the root and smaller than the word.

Word is the smallest unit of grammar that can stand alone, for example, **tree** is a word, **tree-s** is a word, and **-s** is not a word.

Derivational affixes are inside of the stem, and inflectional affixes attach to the stem.

Root: sing **Stem:** singer **Word:** singers

Words

Words are units of meaning. There are two types of words: (1) **Lexical Content**

Words: They constitute the major word classes. Their membership is open.

Open-class words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs). We can add new words (e.g., download as a verb); and (2) **Function or Grammatical Words:** They have

some syntactic function. They are closed-class words (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns).

“**A Word**” as defined by the electronic easy-lingoes dictionary is a unit of language that native speakers can identify. It is a term in common everyday use but one that linguists cannot easily define. “Is “**isn’t**,” for example, one word or two,” and, “how about *mother-in-law*?” It denotes one concept but is formed out of three recognizable ‘words’: *mother*, *in* and *law*. Linguists therefore prefer other terms, referring to **morphs**, **morphemes** and **lexemes** when talking about ‘words’.

Morphemes

A **Morpheme** is the smallest unit of meaning that we cannot further analyze into simpler elements (e.g., cat, happy, un+ [unhappy]).

- a- One morpheme: boy, desire.
- b- Two morphemes: boyish, desirable.
- c- Three morphemes: boyishness, desirability
- d- Four morphemes: gentlemanliness, undesirability
- e- More than four: ungentlemanliness

Morphemes can be free or bound:

Free Morphemes can stand-alone; they can exist on their own. They do not need other morphemes to attach it (e.g., free, cat, small).

Bound Morphemes are the morphemes joined to other morphemes. They are parts of words; never words by themselves (e.g., -less, -ness, un-).

Bound morphemes can be:

- a. Prefixes:** they occur before stem morphemes (e.g., un-, in-, re-)
- b. Suffixes:** they occur after stem morphemes (e.g., -less, -dom, -ness, -ify)
- c. Infixes:** they occur in the middle of stems ("-bloody-" in "in-bloody-credible")
- d. Circumfixes:** they occur around stems ("en- -en" in "enlighten")

Morphemes can be:

Inflectional morphemes:

Inflectional Morphemes (IM) are bound morphemes that never change the syntactic category of the words to which they attach. They usually function as grammatical markers of tense, number, gender, case, and so forth. In English, they can be ONLY suffixes:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| 1. -s third person singular present | e.g., She cleans her room weekly. |
| 2. -ed past tense | e.g., She cleaned her room yesterday. |
| 3. -ing progressive | e.g., She is cleaning her room now. |
| 4. -en past participle | e.g., She has broken the window. |
| 5. -s plural | e.g., She cleaned all the rooms in the house. |
| 6. -'s possessive | e.g., She cleaned her brother's room. |
| 7. -er comparative | e.g., Her room is cleaner than her brother's. |
| 8. -est superlative | e.g., Her father's room is the cleanest. |

Based on the above inflectional morphemes, we will have the term “**Inflection**” that refers to the formation of grammatical variants of a word as in book, book-s, and sing, sing-s.

Derivational Morphemes:

Derivational Morphemes (DM) may change the syntactic category and/or the meaning of the word (e.g., -ish "boyish"). (p. 78).

Word Formation Processes:

1. **Derivation** is the formation of new words by adding affixes as in sing-er.
2. **Coinage**: The construction and addition of new words into the language. They become the generic names though originally product names (e.g., Kleenex, Xerox, and Vaseline).
3. **Compounds** are two or more free morphemes combined together to form new words (e.g., bittersweet, headstrong, carryall, poorhouse, pickpocket, highborn, sleepwalk)
4. **Back-Formation**: A new word that enters the lang. because of an incorrect morphological analysis (peddle from peddler, assuming that the -er is the agentive suffix.) (swindle, edit from editor, swindler [cheater], and stoker [one who starts a fire])
5. **Abbreviations** (clipping): prof. for professor, telly for TV, bike, phone, math, ad
6. **Words from Names**: Sandwich, Jumbo (elephant).

7. **Blends:** Two words combined after deleting some parts. (e.g., smog= smoke and fog) (Motel= motor + hotel).
8. **Acronyms:** Words that are derived from the initials of several words (e.g., AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) (e.g., NFL: National Football League).

Syntax

Syntax refers to the possible arrangements of words in a language. It refers to the rules of sentence formation; the basic unit is the sentence that minimally consists of a main clause (containing at least a subject and verb). It is the component of the mental grammar, which represents speakers' knowledge of the structure of phrases and sentences. The grammars of all languages include rules of syntax that reflect speakers' knowledge of these facts. Sentences are not random strings of words. To be a sentence, words must conform to specific patterns determined by the syntactic rules of the language.

Universal Grammar (UG) represents an attempt to specify what structural elements are present in all languages that is to say, what is the common core, and to derive means for describing these adequately. Language would appear to be organized modularly. Thus, syntax is independent of phonology for instance, though there is an interface between these two levels of language.

Syntax, together with **inflectional morphology**, belongs to what grammarians call in the traditional terminology the “**grammar of a language.**” People have many

associations with that term and not all of them are necessarily positive. For instance, some people believe that certain uses of language are examples of “**bad grammar**”, that everyday spoken language and youth slang “**lack grammar**” or that the grammar of their native language is failing.

All those opinions of people are based on a **normative**, or **prescriptive**, attitude towards grammar, while **linguists** approach grammar, just like any other aspect of language, **descriptively**, in the same way that a biologist approaches an organism or a physician looks at molecules.

Word Order

(1) *The dog bit the man.*

(2) *The man bit the dog.*

Changing word order in (1) and (2) changes the meaning of the sentence.

(3) *I gave him the book.*

(4) *I gave the book to him.*

Changing word order in (3) and (4) does not change the meaning of the sentence.

Definition of a Sentence

Traditionally, a **sentence** is any utterance or sequence of words, which is regarded as capable of standing alone to express a coherent thought as in “I am a college-student.”

Sentence Structure

Sentences are not simply chains of words, but have an internal, mostly hierarchical structure. This **grammatical hierarchy** can be the one illustrated by the following list of the categories used for the analysis of sentence structure:

1. **sentences** contain one or several
2. **clauses** contain one or several
3. **phrases** contain one or several
4. words from different **word classes**

Word classes: Analysis of Sentence Structure

The starting-point of the **analysis of sentence structure** is the classification of words into **word classes** or, more traditionally, parts of speech. A basic division is made between lexical and grammatical (or functional) word classes; to the former belong nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, to the latter the classes of determiners, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions.

While speakers come up with new lexical words quite frequently, i.e. these constitute a rather open set; function words usually form a closed system. Although word class definitions have traditionally based on semantic criteria, it is much safer to define a word class based on structural, i.e. morphological and syntactic, criteria.

Syntactic Categories

A family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality is called a **syntactic category**.

Noun Phrases (NPs)

Noun Phrases (NPs) may function as the subject or as various objects in a sentence. It always contains some form of a noun (common nouns like boy, proper nouns like John, or pronouns like he). Examples: the child, a police officer, and so on thus, an NP can consist of one word (he, John) or more words (the child, a police office) NP can even include a verbal complex as shown by:

Romeo who was a Montague loved Juliet who was a Capulet.

Romeo who was a Montague is the NP subject, and Juliet who was a Capulet is the NP object of this sentence.

Consider (a) to (i) below, which item contains a Noun Phrase (NP)?

- (a) a bird
- (b) the red banjo
- (c) have a nice day
- (d) with a balloon
- (e) the woman who was laughing
- (f) it
- (g) John
- (h) went
- (i) that the earth is round

Try inserting each expression above into the contexts: "Who discovered _____?"

"_____ was seen by everyone."

Only those sentences in which NPs inserted are grammatical, because only NPs can function as subjects and objects.

Verb Phrases (VPs)

Verb Phrases (VPs) always contain a Verb (V), which may be followed by other categories, such as a Noun Phrase or Prepositional Phrase (PP). The Verb Phrases are those that can complete the sentence "The child_____."

Examples:

- (a) *The child saw a clown*
- (b) **The child a bird*
- (c) *The child slept*
- (d) **The child smart*
- (e) *The child is smart*
- (f) *The child found the cake*
- (g) *The child realized that the earth was round.*

Other syntactic categories are Sentence (S), Determiner (Det./D), Adjective (Adj./A), Noun (N), Pronoun (Pro), Preposition (P), Prepositional Phrase (PP), Adverb (Adv.), Auxiliary Verb (Aux), and Verb (V).

Generative Grammar

Generative Grammar (see below) is a formally explicit grammar, which defines the set of grammatical sentences in a language; the term has been introduced by Chomsky in this sense, and is more generally used for the grammar(s) developed by Chomsky and the research community around him.

In Generative Grammar, the **sentence** is the largest constituent that is capable of syntactic characterization. Observe the following phrase structure rules:

$S \rightarrow NP VP$

$VP \rightarrow V NP$

$NP \rightarrow \text{John, Mary}$

$V \rightarrow \text{likes}$

Generates:

John likes Mary

Mary likes John

We can read the above symbols as follows:

$S = \text{Sentence} \rightarrow NP = \text{Noun Phrase} + VP = \text{Verb Phrase}$

VP = Verb Phrase → V = Verb + NP = Noun Phrase

NP = Noun Phrase → N = Noun John, Mary

V = Verb likes

Section 12: Some Differences in English-Arabic Morphology and Syntax

Like English, we study Arabic language from a scientific perspective through Phonology, Morphology, Syntax, Semantics, Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics.

In **Morphology**, there are very few English Arabic cognates and because English and Arabic are not cognate languages, i.e. genetically related. They are considerably different in the classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. Arabic has inflection in the nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative and demonstrative pronouns; English has inflection in all these except adjectives. In Arabic, Inflectional affixes may be prefixes (in verbs), suffixes; in English they are suffixes only. Arabic has three number forms: singular, dual and plural; English has singular and plural. The Arabic equivalent to an English singular countable noun is singular and to an English plural countable noun is always plural in regular and irregular variable nouns that have both singular and plural forms, e.g.:

Eng. Ar. Eng. Ar.

Boy ولد, boys اولاد

Calf عجل calves عجل

Ox ثور oxen; ثيران

Foot قدم feet; اقدام

Radius قطر radii; اقطار

Larva يرقة larvae; يرقات

Stratum طبقة strata; طبقات

Matrix مصفوفة matrices; مصفوفات

Thesis رسالة theses; رسائل

Criterion معيار criteria; معايير

Plateau هضبة plateaus; هضاب

American امريكي Americans; امريكان

Finn فنلندي Finns; فنلنديون

Englishman انجليزي Englishmen; انجليز

Pakistani, باكستاني Pakistanis; باكستانيون

The order of words is different in English from that of Arabic specifically in that adjectives follow the noun they qualify. Here, speakers will make word order mistakes in written and/or spoken English. Arabic L1S may also include a pronoun that in English it is omitted, like “Where is the pen which I gave *it* to you yesterday?” Finally, because there are few English/Arabic cognates, speakers/learners difficulty is compounded in their comprehension of written and spoken English and effort to acquire English (retrieved from (Source:<http://esl.fis.edu/grammar/langdiff/Arabic.htm> 08/02/2015).

There are no modal verbs in Arabic, and often an auxiliary is needed making such mistakes as “Do I must do that?” When speaking English, the indefinite article may be omitted by an Arabic L1, because it does not exist in Arabic, as well as that of genitive constructions.

In Syntax, there are two tenses in Arabic: past and present. There is no future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future time

is rendered by means of the future particles (س) and (سوف سيذهب). What are they? In addition, Arabic has no verb tense “to be” in the present tense and no auxiliary “do”. Furthermore, there is a single present tense in Arabic, as compared to English, which has the simple and continuous forms. These differences result in errors such as “*She good teacher!*”, “*When you come to Germany?*”, “*I flying to Egypt tomorrow.*” or “*Where he going?*”

The word order of Arabic is Verb, Subject, Object (VSO), but that of English is Subject, Verb, and Object (SVO). Moreover, Arabic uses punctuation much more loosely than English does.

Arabic makes gender distinctions in nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives. There are two genders: masculine and feminine. Persons, things and animals may be masculine or feminine. The Arabic gender system is not logical or physical except in persons and animals. Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. Things may be masculine or feminine. The connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is not always very close. Arabic nouns have inherent gender with important grammatical consequences. This system of classification results in two large classes of masculine and feminine.

Section 12: Functions of Language

According to Roman Jakobson (1960), language must serve the following six (6) functions (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- (1) “Cognitive” or ‘referential’ to convey messages and information;

- (2) “Conative” to persuade and influence others through commands and entreaties;
- (3) “Emotive” to express attitudes, feelings and emotions;
- (4) “Phatic” to establish communion with others;
- (5) “Meta-lingual” to clear up difficulties about intentions, words and meanings; and “poetic” to indulge in language for its own sake.

Another classification, proposed by Michael Halliday (1973), refers to the following seven (7) different categories (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- (1) “Instrumental” refers to the fact that language allows speakers to get things done and happen through the use of words alone;
- (2) “Regulatory” refers to language used in an attempt to control events once they happen;
- (3) “Representational” refers to the use of language to communicate knowledge about the world, to report events, to make statements, to give accounts, to explain relationships, to relay messages, and so on;
- (4) “Interactional” refers to language used to ensure social maintenance. (Phatic communication is part of it, those small ‘meaningless’ exchanges which indicate that a channel of communication is open should it be needed).
- (5) “Personal” refers to language used to express the individual’s personality;
- (6) “Heuristic” refers to language used in order to acquire knowledge and understanding of the world; and
- (7) “Imaginative” refers to language used to create imaginary systems, whether these are literary works, philosophical systems or utopian visions, or daydreams and idle musings.

Dell Hymes (1974) has proposed the acronym “**SPEAKING**” to cover all factors to describe the use of language (Wardhaugh: 1993):

- (1)(**S**) “Setting and scene”: Setting refers to the concrete physical circumstances in which speech takes places. Scene refers to the psychological and cultural circumstances;
- (2)(**P**) “participants” refer to speakers and listeners, addressors and addressees or senders and receivers;
- (3)(**E**) “ends” refer to the recognized and expected outcomes of an exchange as well as the goals that participants seek to accomplish through that exchange;
- (4)(**A**) “act sequences” refers to the actual language forms that are used, how these are used and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at hand;
- (5)(**K**) “key” refers to the tone, manner or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed;
- (6)(**I**) “instrumentalities” refer to the choice of channel one makes. Is it oral or written, a language or a dialect, a code or a register and so on?
- (7)(**N**) “norms of interaction and interpretation” refer to the specific behaviors and proprieties that attach to speaking and how these are viewed by someone who does not share them; and
- (8)(**G**) “Genres” refers to what we must recognize in certain kinds of exchange (novels, poems, riddles, jokes, editorials, wills, etc.).

Section 14: Child Language Acquisition (CLA): A Developmental Process

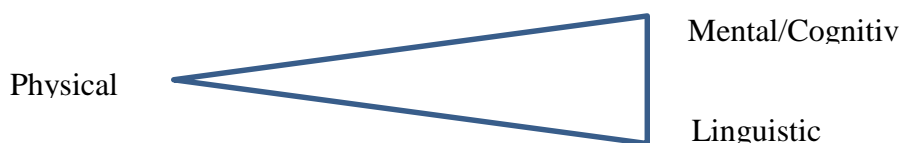
There are essentially two approaches to account for the acquisition of Language. The first approach assumes that language is learned like other behaviors. The

second approach assumes that language is innate and that no real learning situations is there or even necessary.

All the theories accept that language is a developmental process in the sense that there is a progressive emergence or learning of the structures of language. This progressive emergence or the learning is intimately linked with the progressive emergence of cognitive and physical stabilization, learning and maturity. This progressive emergence or the learning of structures that takes place in the cognitive, physical and linguistic places in isolation is viewed.

The independent status of linguistic maturation may not be appreciated. A molecular approach alone brings out the totality and the significance of the processes involved in making the child a separate physical, social and psychological entity in his own right. Lenneberg (1966) gives the correlation that exists between the physical mental/cognitive and linguistic maturational milestones illustrated in the figure below:

Milestones:



Berry (1969) gives a description of the progressive emergence of Language in children from the first month to the third year. He also gives a developmental schedule of non-verbal adaptive behavior from the first week to the 16th month.

First Month

According to Berry (1969), the *one-month* old child responds to the tactile stimulation, responds to light and sound and responds to voices specially his mother's voice. He shows reflex smiling. The cries contain some segmental units with changes in pitch. He/she is aware of his/her own voice.

Second Month

A *two-month* old child shows definite signs of awareness of his or her voice. He/she responds to speaking voices. In the production side, he/she begins to babble. Some speech sounds (mainly vowels) appear. The child resorts to vocal play.

Third Month

A third-month old child vocalizes emotive meanings represented in his different cries. He responds auditory and visual stimuli in the environment. There are no phonemic sounds/patterns shown at this stage.

Fourth Month

In the fourth month, some non-verbal expressive behavior is more pronounced and acquired. The child turns/looks in the direction of the sound/voice. In the production side, the child continues his babbling. His babbling shows four to five syllables. He is engaged in the production of repetitive syllable chains like ba ba ba, ma ma ma, etc.

Fifth Month

In the fifth month, the child's responses are appropriately connected to the stimuli. The child responds to angry tone by crying and responds to pleasant speech by smiling and laughing. Babbling continues and the child imitates his own noises. He shows greater variety in babbling.

Sixth Month

In the sixth month, an oral communicative chain is established. The child shows emotive responses to stimuli that is appropriately connected. He repeats his own syllables. He imitates/repeats the syllables heard. He is able to direct his utterances towards objects of interest. He is also able to make appropriate gestures. The child uses intonation patterns in long babbles.

Seventh Month

In the seventh month, the child pays attention to the speech of persons around him and family members. He enjoys imitating sound sequences and intonations. He produces monosyllabic words, which resembles meaningful words. Bisyllabic repetition can be seen such as baba, mama, m@m@m, ... etc.

Eighth Month

In the eighth month, the child begins to alert to all stimuli in the immediate environment. He is able to comprehend and responds to his own name. He

comprehends negation. He recognizes words like baba, m@m@m, mama, as meaningful.

Eighth and Ninth Month

Between eighth and ninth month, vowels take shape, they resembles of MT; and a few consonants appear. The stretching of child arms and facial gestures are more meaningful. They accompany his vocalization. Echolalia (consonant imitation of the sounds of the environment) is the chief characteristic during this period. Copying of meaningful intonation patterns continues. The child responds to interrogative utterances, for instance, “Where is ...” by pointing and want to go? ... By showing positive responses.

Ninth and Tenth Months

According to Berry (1969), during the period between ninth and tenth months, holophrastic stages appear. One word utterances used by the child are shown as commands, negation or request. The child comprehends social interaction by showing active response to certain intonations. The child produces attempting to name repeated instances of objects or people. The imitation of intonation patterns continues. In the holophrastic stage or repetitive sounds clearly can be distinguished. His vocabulary fifteen varies from ten to fifteen words.

Eleventh Month

In the eleventh month, the child differentiates between his family and strangers. His vocabulary in this month varies from ten words to fifty words.

Twelfth to Fifteenth Months

In the period from twelfth to fifteenth months, the child understands most linguistic units but does not separate sequences into word units. He recognizes names of many familiar objects, persons and pets. His repertoire consists of fifty words that are more in comprehension. He uses open-ended words. He uses a few for many unrelated things. He differentiates words for things and people and word for actions.

Eighteenth to Twenty-Fourth Months

In the period between eighteenth to twenty-fourth months, the child uses two words to make sentence. The child names and describes objects. The transformations seem to be used. All vowels and consonants are clearly used.

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For samples of British Dialects in recording: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/voices/>

Appendix: Previous Exam Questions Papers

Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education English Department Date: Sunday 21/05/2017	In the name of Allah 2 nd Semester-Final-Exam (Regulars) 	Level: 2nd Year English Course : Introduction to Language 2 Time: 3 hours Total Marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah M. M. Ali Shaghi
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (3x10=30 Marks)

1. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F
2. Microlinguistics deals with pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc. T/F
3. In your Introduction to Language 2, you have studied three types of signs: index, icon, and symbol. T/F
4. Applied linguistics deals with lexicography, translation studies, error analysis, computer linguistics. T/F
5. Syntax together with inflectional Morphology belongs to what is traditionally Grammar of Language. T/F
6. Macrolinguistics deals with phonology, morphology, lexicography, semantics, syntax, text analysis. T/F
7. The components that one sees in all Human languages are referred to as Language Universals. T/F
8. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. Back-Formation is one of Word Formation Processes. T/F
10. UG is an abbreviation that refers to Universal Grammar. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((A) Symbol, (B), Principle of Quantity (C) Emotive, (D) Halliday's Systematic Functional Grammar, and (E) Microlinguistics)) to complete the following statements properly. (6x5=30 Marks)

1. The _____ is one of Sub-Disciplines of Linguistics.
2. The _____ is one of Developments of Linguistics.
3. The _____ is one of Functions of Language.
4. The _____ is one of Structuring principles of Language.
5. The _____ is one of the three types of signs.

III. Define briefly any THREE of the following topics. (3x10=30 Marks)

1. Morphology (OR) Syntax	2. Knowledge of Language	3. Applied Linguistics (OR) Philosophy
4. A Morpheme	5. Macrolinguistics	6. Syntactic Categories
7. Definition of a Sentence	8. Prefixes (OR) Suffixes	9. Language Universals (OR) UG
10. The Goal of Linguistics	11. Stem (OR) Root (OR) Word	12. Microlinguistics (OR) Stylistics

IV. Write short notes on any TWO of the following topics: (2x15= 30 Marks)


1. Why do people study Language?	2. On the Origins of Language	3. Sentence Structure
4. Linguistic Knowledge	5. Inflectional Morphemes (OR) Words	6. Morphemes
7. Morphemes can be Free or Bound	8. Elementary Morphology and Syntax	9. Language and Brain
10. Sub-Disciplines of Linguistics	11. Verb Phrases (VPs)	12. Noun Phrases (NPs)

V. Write an essay on any ONE of the following topics. (30=30 Marks)

1. Word Formation Processes	2. Language Universals
3. Language in Education (OR) Syntax	4. Language and Linguistics
5. Linguistics (Thinking about Language)	6. Functions of Language

☺ 🍀 All the Best! 🍀 ☺

Lecturer & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language 2, Final-Exam (Regulars), Sunday 21/05/2017

<p>Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: Saturday 28/05/2016</p>	<p>In the name of Allah 2nd Semester-Final-Exam (Regulars)</p> 	<p>Level: 2nd Year English Course : Introduction to Language 2 Time: 3 hours Total Marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah M. M. Ali Shaghi</p>
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (2x10=20 Marks)

1. The components that one sees in all Human languages are referred to as Language Universals. T/F
2. IM is an abbreviation that refers to Inflectional Morphology or Inflectional Morphemes. T/F
3. SVO is an abbreviation that refers to Subject, Verb, and Object as in "You study English". T/F
4. Affixes that come in front of free morphemes are suffixes, and those that come after are prefixes. T/F
5. DM is an abbreviation that refers to Derivational Morphology or Derivational Morphemes. T/F
6. NP is an abbreviation that refers to a Noun Phrase as in "The pretty girl". T//F
7. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F
8. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. S → NP VP represents one of the Phrase Structure Rules (PSR). T/F
10. Child Language Acquisition is abbreviated as CLA. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((i) Microlinguistics, (ii) Grammar of a Language (iii) Language Universals, (iv) Universal Grammar, (v) Macrolinguistics)) to complete the following statements properly. (6x5=30 Marks)

1. _____ refers traditionally to Syntax, together with Inflectional Morphology.
2. _____ refers to pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.
3. _____ refers to structural elements present in all languages and described adequately.
4. _____ refers to the components that one sees in all human languages.
5. _____ refers to phonology, morphology, lexicography, semantics, syntax, text analysis

III. Define briefly any THREE of the following topics. (3x10=30 Marks)

1. Morphology OR Syntax	4. Syntactic Category OR Sentence	7. Stem OR Root OR Word
2. Language Universals	5. Affixation OR Word Formation	8. SVO OR VSO OR IM OR DM
3. Compounds OR Derivation	6. NP OR VP OR PSR OR CLA	9. Prefixes OR Suffixes OR Infixes

IV. Write short notes with examples on any TWO of the following topics: (2x17.5= 35 Marks)


1. Generative OR Universal Grammar	4. Why do people study Language?	7. Sentence Structure
2. Inflectional OR Derivational Morphemes	5. On the Origins of Language	8. NPs OR VPs
3. CLA in 1 st /2 nd /3 rd /4 th /5 th /6 th /7 th /8 th /9 th Month	6. Words OR Morphemes	9. Language and Brain

V. Write an essay on any ONE of the following topics. (1x35=35 Marks)

1. Language Universals	2. Linguistics (Thinking about Language)
3. Elementary Morphology OR Elementary Syntax	4. Child Language Acquisition (CLA)
5. Language and Linguistics	6. Language in Education OR Functions of Language

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Lecturer & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language 2, Final-Exam (Regulars), Saturday 28/05/2016

Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: Sunday 13/09/2015	In the name of Allah 2nd Semester-Final-Exam (Regulars) 	Level & Course: 2nd Year English Subject: Introduction to Language 2 Time: 3 hours Total marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah M. M. Ali Shaghi
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. Language Universals refers to the components that one sees in all languages. T/F
2. L1S & L2S refers to 1st Language Speaker and 2nd Language Speaker, respectively. T/F
3. The goal of Linguistics is to provide valid analyses of language structure. T/F
4. Microlinguistics, Macrolinguistics and Applied Linguistics are the Disciplines of Linguistics. T/F
5. Stem is a morphological constituent larger than the root and smaller than the word. T/F
6. Affixes which come in front of free morpheme are suffixes, and those which come after are prefixes. T/F
7. SVO is the only Arabic word-order, but the English word-order can have both VSO and SVO. T/F
8. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. $S \rightarrow NP VP$ represents one of the Phrase Structure Rules (PSR). T/F
10. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((i) Stem, (ii) Microlinguistics, (iii) Applied Linguistics, (iv) Disciplines of Linguistics, (v) Macrolinguistics)) to complete the following statements appropriately. (6 x 5 = 30 marks)

1. _____ refers to phonology, morphology, lexicography, semantics, syntax, text analysis.
2. _____ refers to pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.
3. _____ refers to Microlinguistics, Macrolinguistics and Applied Linguistics.
4. _____ refers to lexicography, translation studies, error analysis, and computer linguistics.
5. _____ refers to morphological constituent larger than the root and smaller than the word.

III. Define briefly any THREE of the following topics. (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. Morphology	4. Stem	7. A Syntactic Category
2. Language Universals	5. Syntax	8. L1S and L2S
3. Compounds	6. PSR or NPs or VPs	9. Introduction to Language 2

IV. Write short notes with examples on any TWO of the following topics: (2 x 15 = 30 marks)


1. On the Origins of Language	4. Why do people study language?	7. Sentence Structure
2. Morphemes or Inflectional Morphemes	5. Linguistic Knowledge	8. NPs or VPs
3. Generative Grammar or Words	6. Universal Grammar	9. Language and Brain

V. Write an essay on any ONE of the following topics. (1 x 30 = 30 marks)

1. Language Universals	2. Morphology or Syntax
3. Linguistics (Thinking about Language)	4. Some Differences in English-Arabic Morphology & Syntax
5. Language and Linguistics	6. Language in Education or Introduction to Language 2

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Lecturer & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language 2, Final-Exam (Regulars), Sunday 13/09/2015

Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: 13/10/2015	In the name of Allah 2nd Semester-Final-Exam (Repeaters) 	Level & Course: 2nd Year English Subject: Introduction to Language 2 Time: 3 hours Total marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah M. M. Ali Shaghi
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. The course provides an introduction to the scientific study of language, concentrating on English T/F
2. 1st Language Speaker and 2nd Language Speaker are abbreviated as L1S & L2S, respectively. T/F
3. The goal of Linguistics is to provide valid analyses of language structure. T/F
4. Root refers to a morpheme from a lexical class: V, N, A, from which a lexical word is built. T/F
5. Stem is a morphological constituent larger than the root and smaller than the word. T/F
6. Affixes which come in front of free morphemes are prefixes, and those which come after are suffixes. T/F
7. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F
8. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. $S \rightarrow NP VP$ represents one of the Phrase Structure Rules (PSR). T/F
10. Microlinguistics, Macrolinguistics and Applied Linguistics are the Disciplines of Linguistics. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((i) Stem, (ii) Word, (iii) Suffixes, (iv) Prefixes, and (v) Root) to complete the following statements appropriately. (6 x 5 = 30 marks)

1. _____ refers to the smallest unit of grammar which can stand alone, for example, tree.
2. _____ refers to affixes which come after free morphemes.
3. _____ refers to affixes which come in front of free morphemes.
4. _____ refers to a morpheme from a lexical class: V, N, A, from which a lexical word is built.
5. _____ refers to morphological constituent larger than the root and smaller than the word.

III. Define briefly any THREE of the following topics. (3 x 15 = 45 marks)


1. Introduction to Language 2	6. Syntactic Categories
2. Prefixes	7. Morphology
3. Root	8. Stem
4. Morpheme	9. Syntax
5. Affixes	10. Disciplines of Linguistics

IV. Write short notes with examples on any THREE of the following topics: (3 x 15 = 45 marks)

1. On the Origins of Language	6. Why do people study language?
2. Morphemes	7. Linguistic Knowledge
3. Words	8. NPs
4. Sentence Structure	9. Language and Brain
5. VPs	10. Inflectional Morphemes

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Lecturer & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language 2, Final-Exam (Repeaters), 13/10/2015

Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: Sunday 08/06/2014	In the name of Allah Final-Exam (Regulars) 	Level & Course: 2nd Year English Subject: Introduction to Language II Time: 3 hours Total marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. The course introduces the scientific study of language, especially English and Arabic. T/F
2. Language Universals refers to the components that one sees in all languages. T/F
3. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F
4. The -en past participle as in 'spoken' is one of the inflectional morphemes. T/F
5. Artificial Intelligence refers to how to make computers more sophisticated. T/F
6. Morphology refers to the rules of sentence formation. T/F
7. The word order of Arabic is (SVO), but that of English is (VSO). T/F
8. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. VP → V (NP) (PP) (ADV) represents one of Phrase Structure Rules. T/F
10. Chomsky's Syntactic Structures is one of the points to consider in the development of Linguistics. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((i) Competence vs. Performance, (ii) Halliday's System and function in language, (iii) Applied Linguistics, (iv) Descriptive vs. Prescriptive, (v) General Linguistics)) to complete the following statements appropriately. (6 x 5 = 30 marks)

1. _____ refers to how language is vs. how language should be.
2. _____ refers to the study of systemic properties of natural language.
3. _____ refers one of the points to consider in the development of Linguistics.
4. _____ refers to how to learn and to teach different languages.
5. _____ refers to what we know vs. the actual use of language.

III. Define briefly any three of the following topics. (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. Linguistic knowledge	4. A Stem Morpheme	7. Syntactic Categories
2. Language Universals	5. Abbreviations (clipping)	8. Verb Phrases (VPs)
3. A Root Morpheme	6. Linguistics	9. Noun Phrases (NPs)

IV. Write short notes with examples on any two of the following topics: (2 x 15 = 30 marks)


1. Morphemes	4. Introduction to Language II	7. Sentence Structure
2. Word classes	5. Phrase Structure Rules	8. Verb Phrases (VPs)
3. Prepositional Phrases (PP)	6. Language and Brain	9. Why do people study language?

V. Write an essay on any one of the following topics. (1 x 30 = 30 marks)

1. Summary of Introduction to Language II	2. Morphology
3. Syntax	4. Some Differences of English-Arabic Morphology & Syntax
5. Language and Linguistics	6. Inflectional Morphemes vs. Derivational Morphemes

☺ 🍀 Best wishes & Good luck! 🍀 ☺

Teacher & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language II, Final-Exam (Regulars), Sunday 08/06/2014

Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: Sunday 08/06/2014	In the name of Allah Final-Exam (Regulars) 	Level & Course: 2nd Year English Subject: Introduction to Language II Time: 3 hours Total marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. The course introduces the scientific study of language, especially English and Arabic. T/F
2. Language Universals refers to the components that one sees in all languages. T/F
3. Syntax is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of word formation. T/F
4. The -en past participle as in 'spoken' is one of the inflectional morphemes. T/F
5. Artificial Intelligence refers to how to make computers more sophisticated. T/F
6. Morphology refers to the rules of sentence formation. T/F
7. The word order of Arabic is (SVO), but that of English is (VSO). T/F
8. Morphology is the linguistic study that refers to the structures and rules of sentence formation. T/F
9. VP → V (NP) (PP) (ADV) represents one of Phrase Structure Rules. T/F
10. Chomsky's Syntactic Structures is one of the points to consider in the development of Linguistics. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: ((i) Competence vs. Performance, (ii) Halliday's System and function in language, (iii) Applied Linguistics, (iv) Descriptive vs. Prescriptive, (v) General Linguistics)) to complete the following statements appropriately. (6 x 5 = 30 marks)

1. _____ refers to how language is vs. how language should be.
2. _____ refers to the study of systemic properties of natural language.
3. _____ refers one of the points to consider in the development of Linguistics.
4. _____ refers to how to learn and to teach different languages.
5. _____ refers to what we know vs. the actual use of language.

III. Define briefly any three of the following topics. (3 x 10 = 30 marks)

1. Linguistic knowledge	4. A Stem Morpheme	7. Syntactic Categories
2. Language Universals	5. Abbreviations (clipping)	8. Verb Phrases (VPs)
3. A Root Morpheme	6. Linguistics	9. Noun Phrases (NPs)

IV. Write short notes with examples on any two of the following topics: (2 x 15 = 30 marks)


1. Morphemes	4. Introduction to Language II	7. Sentence Structure
2. Word classes	5. Phrase Structure Rules	8. Verb Phrases (VPs)
3. Prepositional Phrases (PP)	6. Language and Brain	9. Why do people study language?

V. Write an essay on any one of the following topics. (1 x 30 = 30 marks)

1. Summary of Introduction to Language II	2. Morphology
3. Syntax	4. Some Differences of English-Arabic Morphology & Syntax
5. Language and Linguistics	6. Inflectional Morphemes vs. Derivational Morphemes

☺ 🍀 Best wishes & Good luck! 🍀 ☺

Teacher & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language II, Final-Exam (Regulars), Sunday 08/06/2014

<p>Republic of Yemen Hodeidah University Zabid College of Education Department of English Date: Monday 19/05/2014</p>	<p>In the name of Allah Final-Exam (Repeaters)</p> 	<p>Level & Course: 2nd Year English Subject: Introduction to Language II Time: 3 hours Total marks: 150 Teacher: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi</p>
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I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F): (4 x 10 = 40 marks)

1. The course provides an introduction to the scientific study of language, concentrating on English. T/F
2. The course examines English words (morphology), sentences (syntax) and meanings (semantics). T/F
3. Lexicography is the art of making dictionaries. T/F
4. Affixes which come in front of a free morpheme are suffixes, and those which come after are prefixes. T//F
5. Two examples of two morphemes can be represented in *speaker* and *reader*. T/F
6. Syntax refers to the rules of sentence formation. T/F
7. The word order of English is (SVO). T/F
8. Morphology refers to the rules of word formation. T/F
9. The word order of Arabic is (VSO). T/F
10. NP → (D) (A) N (PP) represents the Noun Phrase as one of Phrase Structure Rules. T/F

II. Use these 5 terms: (i) A Stem Morpheme, (ii) Syntax, (iii) A Morpheme, (iv) Morphology, and (v) A Root Morpheme to complete the following statements appropriately. (6 x 5 = 30 marks)

1. _____ is the one that has the principal meaning of the word.
2. _____ is the smallest unit of meaning that cannot be further analyzed into simpler elements.
3. _____ refers to the rules of word formation.
4. _____ refers to the rules of sentence formation.
5. _____ is the root morpheme that other morphemes can be added to.

III. Define briefly any four of the following topics. (4 x 10 = 40 marks)

1. Introduction to Language II	5. Compounds
2. Lexicography	6. Morphology
3. A Stem Morpheme	7. A Root Morpheme
4. A Morpheme	8. Syntax

IV. Write short notes with examples on any four of the following topics: (4 x 10 = 40 marks)

1. Description of the Course Introduction to Language II	5. Word-order
2. Why do people study language?	6. Borrowing
3. Inflectional Morphemes	7. Morphemes
4. Linguistic knowledge	8. Derivation

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Teacher & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi, 2nd YE, Introduction to Language II, Final-Exam (Repeaters), Monday 19/05/2014

Republic of Yemen
Hodaidah University
Zabid College of Education
Department of English
Date: /06/2011

In the name of Allah
Final exam (Repeaters)



Level & Course: II Year English
Subject: Introduction to language II
Time: 2 hours
Total marks: 150
Teacher: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi

ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS (FROM I-V) IN IN YOUR ANSWER BOOK

I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F); the first has been done for you.

(3 x 10 = 30 marks)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| 1. Parole changes, but langue doesn't. | (T) |
| 2. The syntagmatic relation exists on a horizontal plane. | () |
| 3. The relation between signifier and signified is arbitrary. | () |
| 4. Langue changes, but parole doesn't. | () |
| 5. Diachronic studies do not take the historical evolution of language into account. | () |
| 6. Structure is an ordered construct, containing many parts within it. | () |
| 7. It is necessary to distinguish between langue and parole. | () |
| 8. Sign is made up of signifier and signified taken together. | () |
| 9. Synchronic studies take the historical evolution of language into account. | () |
| 10. The linguistic Indian tradition began with Plato and Aristotle. | () |
| 11. The linguistic Greek and Roman traditions began with Panini and Patanjali. | () |

II. Use these 5 terms: (paradigmatic, Langue, Synchronic, Parole, Sign) to complete the following statements appropriately.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- _____ is individual.
- _____ is social.
- _____ and symbol can be distinguished.
- _____ relationship is between elements in a class.
- _____ and Diachronic approaches can be distinguished.

III. Define briefly any three of the following topics .

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Performance | 2. Langue |
| 3. Parole | 4. Competence |
| 5. Neogrammarians | 6. Panini's grammar |

IV. Write short notes with examples on any two of the following topics.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- Structure and System
- Substance and form
- Signifier and signified
- Feature's of Panini's Grammar

V. Write an essay on any one of the following topics.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- Synchronic and diachronic studies
- Langue vs. parole
- Linguistics in the 20th century
- Competence vs. performance

Best wishes & good luck!
Teacher & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi

Republic of Yemen
Hodaidah University
Zabid College of Education
Department of English
Date: /06/2011

In the name of Allah
Final exam (Regular)



Level & Course: II Year English
Subject: Introduction to language II
Time: 2 hours
Total marks: 150
Teacher: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi

ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS (FROM I-V) IN IN YOUR ANSWER BOOK

I. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F); the first has been done for you.

(3 x 10 = 30 marks)

- | | |
|---|-------|
| 1. Langue changes, but Parole doesn't. | (F) |
| 2. The relation between signifier and signified is arbitrary. | () |
| 3. Diachronic studies do not take the historical evolution of language into account. | () |
| 4. Parole changes, but langue doesn't. | () |
| 5. The syntagmatic relationship exists on a horizontal plane. | () |
| 6. System is an ordered construct, containing many parts within it. | () |
| 7. The paradigmatic relationship exists on a vertical plane. | () |
| 8. Symbol is made up of signifier and signified taken together. | () |
| 9. It is necessary to distinguish between competence and performance. | () |
| 10. Grammarians and phonologists of Sanskrit are such as Plato and Aristotle. | () |
| 11. The older linguistic traditions of Greek and Roman languages began with Panini and Patanjali. | () |

II. Use these 5 terms: (Competence, Syntagmatic, Performance, Parole, langue) to complete the following statements appropriately.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- _____ is abstract.
- _____ is concrete and physical.
- _____ is what a speaker does.
- _____ relationship is between elements in a linear sequence.
- _____ is the native speaker's knowledge of his/her language.

III. Define briefly any three of the following topics .

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|
| 1. Structure | 2. Parole |
| 3. Morphophonemic changes | 4. Semiotics |
| 5. The concept of Sandhi | 6. Langue |

IV. Write short notes with examples on any two of the following topics.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- Substance and form
- Signifier and signified
- Sign and Symbol
- Synchronic and diachronic approach

V. Write an essay on any one of the following topics.

(6 x 5 = 30 marks)

- Competence vs. performance
- Langue vs. parole
- Paradigmatic vs. syntagmatic relationships
- Linguistics in the 20th century

Best wishes & good luck!
Teacher & Examiner: Dr. Abdullah Shaghi